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HOW TO TEACH ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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A DISCUSSION OF THE BASIC TENETS OF TEACHING ENGLISH GRAMMAR TO NONNATIVE SPEAKERS, AS FOLLOWED IN THE ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) PROGRAM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT LOS ANGELES, IS PRESENTED IN THIS PAPER. THE INTRODUCTION OF GRAMMAR POINTS TO BE PRACTICED AND THE GENERALIZATION PROCESS WHICH FOLLOWS ARE DESCRIBED IN NONTECHNICAL LANGUAGE. VARIOUS TYPES OF DRILLS ILLUSTRATE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE GRAMMAR LESSON. PARTICULAR IMPORTANCE IS GIVEN TO THE AGE LEVELS OF THE STUDENTS AS AFFECTING THE TYPE OF GRAMMAR PRESENTATION. (AMM)

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HOW TO TEACH ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Lois McIntosh

1. THE QUESTION OF GRAMMAR RULES

All of us have, at one time or another, memorized statements about English. We have been able to tell what nouns are, what verbs do, and what pronouns consist of. As teachers we expect our students to follow in our paths.

When we are learning to speak a language, at some stage in our learning, we need to be aware of the facts about language. We need to know what kinds of sentences there are, what parts of speech there are and what they do, what arrangements of word order are possible and significant. WHEN do we need this information? HOW can we benefit from knowing it?

We should never talk ABOUT language until we know how to speak the language. This means that beginners, whether they are six or sixty, in kindergarten or adult night school, should not talk about language until they have had some experience with it.

For example, a class in elementary school somewhere abroad, in its second year of language study, might have a lesson like this:

TEACHER	STUDENTS
Listen: I was in Grade Two last year. I'm in Grade Three now. How many of you were in Grade Two last year?	(Show of hands)
Say, after me: I was in Grade Two last year.	I was in Grade Two....

As the lesson continues, with choral repetition, row by row and individual repetition, the children are using sentences about themselves, in terms of past time and present time. Now the teacher in preparing to give that class, no doubt said to herself that she would "review past tense forms of be". But she didn't tell the class that. Instead, she led them into a conversation that ensured plenty of practice in selecting the right verb form to go with the time expressions of now and last year. The class learned grammar. As they talked they gained control of those forms of the present and past of BE. But they weren't talking about "present tense" and "past tense". They were speaking about language, and showing by their speech that they had mastered that particular phase of the grammar.

In the early years of school, and in later years, if the students are beginners, they learn grammar by mastering the basic sen-

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tences of the language. This is exactly what they did when they learned their first language, long before they came to school. They learned it by using it. Only in school did they come in contact with "rules of grammar", and they learned to talk about the language they already knew how to speak.

It is even more important for us to remember that in learning a second language, discussion of its structure does not ensure mastery of its sentences. After the beginning stages, learners may find it helpful to know something about the language they are speaking. But this must be done only after they are able to use it so well that they can stop and consider what it is they are communicating with. But here too, and with more advanced learners, we should come to our conclusions about language from a consideration of what we have been saying.

For example, an intermediate student might be asked to "define" past tense in English. He might then say, "Past tense expresses past action or state of being. We add -ed to verbs to make them past."

He probably found some such statement in a book, memorized it until he had it letter perfect. Then in class, in another situation, he said, "I walk there yesterday." No relation between rule and use has been established, and much time has been wasted. Another student began by hearing his teacher read a short paragraph about a rabbit.

TEACHER: (with pictures of a rabbit) Listen to the story of the rabbit: (Reading to the class)

Yesterday a rabbit looked out of his hole under a tree. He hopped along the path. He stopped and lifted his nose in the air. What did he smell? Was it a carrot? His nose wiggled and his tail did too. Where were those carrots? He looked and looked and looked. He wanted those carrots, but he didn't find any.

TEACHER: Now tell the story of the rabbit with me.

Yesterday a rabbit looked out of his hole under a tree.

CLASS: (repeating the story sentence by sentence)

TEACHER: Did the rabbit look out of his hole?

CLASS: Yes, he did.

TEACHER: Did he hop along the path?

CLASS: Yes, he did.

The questions and answers continue, the class responding Yes, he did; No, he didn't. (If the did is introduced for the first time, of course the teacher models it. But this is Grade 6--they have had these forms before)

TEACHER: When did the story happen?

CLASS: Yesterday.

TEACHER: What did the rabbit do yesterday?

STUDENT 1: He looked out of his hole.

STUDENT 2: He hopped along the path.

(and so on through the story)

Generalization:

When we tell what happened yesterday what do we add to the verbs?

Listen: he looks - he looked /t/
he wiggles - he wiggled /d/
he lifts - he lifted /əd/

Can you find other verbs in the story? How are they pronounced?

With /t/ /d/ or /əd/?

How do we spell these sounds (-ed)
How do we ask a question about past time? (We use did)
How do we make a sentence negative? (We use didn't)

Compare these generalizations with those of the first student. You will notice how much more territory is covered in the second set: The sounds of past tense, the spelling, the question sentence, the negative sentence...all essential to a complete picture of past tense. (If this tense is a brand new concept, introduced for the first time, you might use the same context, but you would proceed a step at a time. First the statement,...then practice with statements; then questions and their related answers, and more practice, contrasting this form with the statement form; and then negatives, introduced, practised, and contrasted.)

2. IMPLEMENTING THE GRAMMAR LESSON

Following the generalization, there are more exercises to reinforce and make the new material automatic. The past tense of regular verbs has fewer difficulties than present tense. Only one form..did..as against the two do/does, demanding correlation with singular and plural forms, only one ending, although the three phonetically determined endings must be learned. And these endings (walked..kt; moved..vd; waited..əd) cause real difficulty for speakers of languages in which final consonants do not cluster, or in which final consonants are always voiceless.

At this stage, to ensure aural recognition of the new structure, a substitution of items and choral repetition may prove helpful.

TEACHER: The rabbit looked and looked and looked.
(Repeat)

Then he hopped and hopped and hopped.
Then he wiggled and wiggled and wiggled.
And he lifted his nose and waited a while.
He wanted those carrots but he didn't find any.

The substitution drill has many variations. (See Section 3 of this paper) Conversion drills make heavier demands on students. The learner needs to understand and react to English time signals. He can learn to do this through conversion drills.

1. Statement to question

The rabbit looked for carrots: did he look for carrots?

2. Affirmative statement to negative statement

The rabbit looked for carrots. He didn't look for rice. (If possible, the resulting conversions should be more than a mechanical switch over--it should make sense. In order to get the negative statement, you could ask "Did he look for rice?"

3. From one time to another

The rabbit looked for carrots.	-	He looks for carrots everyday.
Did he look for carrots?	-	Does he look for carrots?
Did he look for carrots?	-	Is he looking for carrots?
He isn't looking.	-	He didn't look.

Correlation drills reinforce the use of substitute verbs.

The rabbit likes carrots, and we do too.
He didn't find any, and we didn't either.

Tag questions: He doesn't like them,.... (does he)
He likes them,.... (doesn't he)

Continue with statements in all the tenses they have studied, with varying subjects:

He liked them, didn't he?
They liked them, didn't they.... and so on.

The same lesson can be used for further study. Returning to the original paragraph, we can take up spelling problems connected with suffixing -ed (study, hop, hope not in the story are sources of some misspelling. Examples of each kind could be the subject of a spelling lesson at this time). Then a new attack can be made on was/were. Again, as in the two present tenses, the problem of singular/plural agreement must be recognized and drills provided. A generalization can be made from the text:

Was it a carrot? It was a carrot.
Where were the carrots?

Then: I was, he was, she was, it was .... we were, you were, they were are compared.

Then follow exercises to make the choice of subject and verb automatic:

(a) simple substitution:

	TEACHER	CLASS
Repeat after me:	It was there.	It was there.
	He	He was there.
(continuing)	They; we; she; you; I	

(b) TEACHER: It was a carrot. They were carrots.

Change the sentence according to the last word. Example:

cat: It was a cat.
cats: They were cats.

(continue with singular and plural items).

3. THE ASSIGNMENT

The assignment following extensive class use of past tense forms in meaningful situations, should be considered an additional opportunity to reinforce the matter being taught. Depending on the maturity of the class--for past tense can be taught at all levels and all stages--the assignment can be used to exercise the student's productive ability. For the beginner, make the assignment very specific. Give him a group of related verbs and ask him to tell a little story with them. Or, ask him to write a series of sentences, like the model that you give him: The boy skipped (jump, shout, play, hurry, stop). For the intermediate student, in higher levels, give a more general assignment, but don't hesitate to help with examples and models and suggested vocabulary if he needs it. Assignments aren't tests, they are further ways to use the language.

4. BUT WHAT ABOUT FORMAL GRAMMAR?

The rabbit story and its exercises are all very well for younger learners you will say at this point. But when does the student learn formal grammar? Whether he is talking about rabbits in Grade 6, or philosophers in a university class, he is learning formal grammar when he learns to control the past tense forms and to correlate these forms with such time expressions as yesterday, once upon a time, and all the others.

The rabbit as subject matter was suitable for the younger learner, while the procedures of the lesson can apply to any level and any stage. The story and the verbs at university level may not concern rabbits--they may concern explorers and philosophers. But the noises /t/, /d/, and /əd/ at the end of the verbs still mean yesterday; did followed by subject and verb still asks a past time question; and subject followed by didn't + verb still makes a past time negative statement. When the speaker uses these devices without resorting to his first language, when he produces statements and questions correlating the time and the forms, he is using formal grammar. If he can make a generalization about all this, he is talking about the formal grammar that we hope he already controls. But the recognition and use of the grammar should precede the talking about it.

The pattern approach to language learning replaces the item by item consideration of the grammar. We may pause to recognize noun as concept, after we have been introduced to it through use. We may pause and change some forms from singular to plural. But the

nouns must operate in a total structure, in a sentence, in relation to other elements in the sentence. The underlying pattern of the formation of plural must be tied to agreements like these:

It is a ...they are -s; There's a ... There are ... -s.
(and: was/were; have/has; do/does)

A thing is; Things are Boys play ball; A boy enjoys games

It isn't enough to say that a noun forms its plural by adding -s. We must consider how that -s sounds /s/, /z/, /əz/ as we considered the past tense endings, /t/, /d/, /əd/. We must consider the whole problem of number--how some nouns select only singular verbs: news is; others only plural: people are.

Today we consider that there are two ways to "know" grammar. The most important is to have a recognition of the functioning of the language we know how to speak. The structures required to signal various meanings...the suffixes on verbs, the suffixes on nouns, must be used in relation to each other. The second is the ability to talk analytically about the language in the terms of descriptive linguistics. This second way of knowing grammar must be deferred until the first has been acquired. The best way to learn formal grammar is to speak English well and meaningfully. If you can use English sentences effectively, you control the formal grammar of the language. When you need to stop and talk about the language, you can do so more effectively if you draw on your actual conversation and make generalizations from it. In brief, control and accurate production of the language mean knowing the formal grammar. Unfortunately, examinations do take place, and the terminology of these does not always match the linguistic descriptions of the language. But if the examination expects the student to underline nouns and verbs in a sentence, surely he can do that, if he has undergone the processes described here. If the examination calls for "choosing the correct form," he should be able to do that, if he knows the grammar by speaking the language accurately. If he is asked to re-write a sentence to make it correct, he should be able to do it. If, however, examinations call for parsing or defining in older terms, we will simply have to change the examinations.

5. THE GRAMMAR LESSON FOLLOWS CERTAIN STAGES

The first consists of presenting the problem to be taught. There are several ways in which this can be done.

1. The analytical presentation. The grammar book with a rule followed by a sentence or two of illustration, and followed by some exercises to write is familiar to us all. Some text books in the newer tradition of language learning retain some of the features of that approach. Such text books are not suitable for young learners. They can be used by adults who wish to be aware of the bony structure of the language they are trying to master. The present day language text that offers an analytical approach usually does so by selecting one or two "key" sentences that illustrate the problem

to be mastered. These are put in a frame showing the different divisions of the sentence. The sentences are repeated. Then a generalization follows, and exercises of various kinds follow the generalization to ensure mastery of the sentence in question.

The procedure is still that of language learning--hearing, repeating, and mastering. It is well suited for the kind of mature student in a hurry to review the structure of the language. But it has the serious drawback of providing sentences that are not easily transferred to normal every day conversation. Although the drills have the classes talking about small experiences (I wash my face every day), there is rarely sufficient challenge in the material of the lesson to stimulate the language learner to thorough and enthusiastic control.

2. The contextual presentation. Other textbook writers believe that the language experience should precede analysis, and that the language should be related to the realities of the student's life. The dialogue or two-part conversation is the basis of many context presentations. It has many advantages. When two people talk to each other, they use language in several of its basic forms. They ask questions and answer briefly. They do not harangue one another, but rather exchange pertinent information. Dialogues can not only present a grammar point, they can reveal social attitudes and facts about the background of the users of this language. Dialogues are good, too, for pronunciation control.

A disadvantage of this form is that it is not always possible to control the language completely if the dialog is to sound natural. While this is not serious in intermediate or advanced learning situations, it is a difficulty in materials for beginners. The beginner should not have to be burdened with language matters he will use once and not soon again, nor should he be bewildered by variant forms of the same structure. (Far too many texts give both forms of the negative in the same lesson (he isn't and he is not) making no distinction between them) Unnecessary confusion has resulted from that kind of thing. A third disadvantage is that a dialogue is somewhat like the lines in a play. Each depends on a set response. For if as student A in a dialogue with student B, you ask a question, student B will respond with the right memorized response. If, outside the classroom, you ask Neighbor B the same question, you may get a wrong answer and the dialogue will grind to a stop. There is no cut and dried response to any question.

But these difficulties to one side, the dialogue is an excellent way to acquire a lively section of the language and master it. Exercises stemming from the dialogue give it some adaptability to new situations. Contextual presentations vary according to the preference of the writer of the materials. The story about the rabbit happens to be the kind of context I like to use to present a grammar problem. The questions that follow check comprehension, and give the students a chance to use the language before they talk about it. This

approach works for adults as well as for children, and the introductory material may be a short paragraph, an anecdote from a publication, or a longer context. The longer context--perhaps an article in the newspaper, or in a textbook accessible to all the students--will not be entirely controlled. However a single sentence from the context can be pulled out and imitated as well as analyzed.

The purpose of all these presentations is to provide an experience in the use of the language first. Realization of the way in which the language operates follows its use. It is far more important to speak the language and communicate with it, than to talk about it. All of us reading that familiar sentence will nod, but how many of us in our classes follow that precept? How many of us have a guilty feeling that if we don't tie up the grammar with a neat rule, they'll never never learn it? To overcome that deep-seated attitude, which we all share, remember how you learned your first language. You did not sit in the corner memorizing rules. You went out in the sun and played with your friends and learned from them and taught them, as you summoned up those noises you needed to get on with the game of the moment. Analysis of the language, talking about it is all right after we are able to speak it well enough to have some curiosity about its behavior.

The first step in the lesson on past tense was, you will remember, hearing a story or a conversation or a key sentence spoken by the teacher. The next step was imitating the teacher. The third step for some kinds of material is repetition of them until they are mastered. This is especially true of material introduced in a dialogue. I am talking here about the kind of lesson represented by the rabbit story in this article.

The class listens to the teacher, repeats after the teacher. The class hears questions and repeats them. The class answers each question using the sentences from the story. When they are able to use these sentences without help from the text or from the teacher, they are ready for the generalization about them. Remember that the generalization isn't necessary for young learners, and for older learners it should be postponed until the class is sure of the introductory sentences. The story of the rabbit was followed by some statements about the pronunciation of past tense endings, the past tense question and negative signals (did, didn't). There was no mention of action or state of being, but the focus of attention was on the shape and function of this entity recognized as a verb.

After the generalization, we come to a stage that is sometimes labelled "pattern practice." This practice consists of drills to provide sufficient repetition of the structure to be learned to ensure control of it. The possible devices for providing this practice are described here. Let me say very emphatically that merely repeating one word or one sentence over and over again is not one of them. The word drill may recall long hours at the piano or on the parade ground to some of us. Drill in language learning situations should not consist

of doing the same thing over and over. Variety is possible and desirable, as the activities described here will show.

Let us consider some of the aids to mastery of the grammar of English.

1. Hearing Activity

   A. Listening to the structure to be mastered either analytically or contextually. (i.e., hearing the story of the rabbit)

   B. Hearing minimal pairs of sentences revealing a grammatical fact:

   Example 1: the meaning of the sound on the end of verbs in terms of time:

TEACHER	CLASS
The boy walks fast.	every day
The boy walked fast.	yesterday

(More advanced classes should respond: he does; does he? or he did; did he?)

Example 2: the meaning of the sounds /s/, /z/, and /əz/ when they occur on the verb, compared to their meaning when they occur on the noun:

TEACHER	CLASS
The boy studies. How many?	one
The boys study. How many?	two

(More advanced classes should respond: he does, or they do; does he? or do they?)

Comment:

A certain amount of practice on hearing and responding to the sounds that mean singular/plural or time shifts is useful to speakers of many different language backgrounds. Many Oriental languages, for example, use a particle preceding the noun to express plural, or a particle following the verb that never changes its form to express time or aspect. With the language habits implied by these devices, the learner must be led to hear what is going on in English. If his language has no final consonant clusters, he must learn to hear those significant noises that tell time and number in English.

2. Producing the Language: Preliminary Activity

   A. Basic activity: Imitation of the teacher and repetition after him of the introductory material. He models all new material and expects the class to imitate it. Guessing the answer does not belong in language learning. Nothing should be assigned in advance to be studied for the first time. Homework should be based on what was first presented and practised in class.

B. Response to questions that force the particular grammar structure. The questions following the story of the rabbit tested comprehension of the material that the class had listened to and repeated. They afforded an opportunity for the learner to make statements using the structure to be mastered. This sequence of questions has been suggested to elicit a gradually increasing amount of language:

(1) Questions that can be answered yes or no. Answers of this type demand correlation with the subject and verb of the question. Does X do something? Yes, he does, or no, he doesn't.

(2) "or" questions offering a choice of answers: Does X do this or that? He does that. This question forces a complete statement in answer, and it gives clues in the question as to what the answer will consist of.

(3) What, where, when, who, how information questions (sometimes called thought provoking) will bring out fully structured answers if the material under discussion has been thoroughly understood.

Comment:

At first glance, the questions following a text may seem very obvious and easy. Remember that the questions have been carefully constructed to give practice in producing certain language relationships and to lead the student into using controlled language at a time when he must master that particular segment of the language.

3. Producing the language: Pattern Practice drills and devices

A. Substitution

(1) Any drill involving replacing or changing the form of a part of the sentence, without re-arranging the word order of the sentence may be considered a substitution drill.

(2) Substitution drills are of three kinds: simple, replacement, and conditioned form changes.

a. simple substitution

The teacher sets a model sentence which the class repeats. The teacher suggests a replacement for one item in the sentence. The class repeats the model sentence, replacing one item as suggested.

Example: Model sentence: He ate his lunch yesterday.

Substitution:

breakfast	He ate his breakfast yesterday.
dinner	He ate his dinner yesterday.

In this exercise, all the student has to do is to put a different item in the same place in the sentence. This exercise would be useful for teaching him to associate the names of meals with the verb "ate." The class is also practising, unconsciously, the correlation of time "yesterday" and the past form "ate."

b. Replacement substitution:

Example: Model sentence: He ate his lunch yesterday.

Substitution:

she	She ate her lunch yesterday.
dinner	She ate her dinner yesterday.
they	They ate their dinner yesterday.

This exercise demands a replacement in more than one part of the sentence. When the subject changes from "he" to "she" or to "they," the possessive pronoun must also change. When "dinner" replaces "lunch," attention shifts to that part of the sentence, while the student keeps all the other elements in place.

Other possibilities of this exercise:

(a) time substitutes: They ate their dinner yesterday.

now	They're eating their dinner now.
every day	They eat their dinner every day.

(b) number:

1. single word changes: a cat ... cats
   (singular to plural) a man ... men
   (plural to singular) men ..... a man
   mice .... a mouse

   (zero to -s) I walk .... he walks
   I run ..... he runs
   I watch ... he watches

   (general to specific) a book .... the book on the table.

2. Subject-verb agreement (forms of be) They're eating now.
   he He's eating now.
   I I'm eating now. (and so on; include was/were)

   (do/does in question) Do they eat here every day?

we	Do we eat here every day?
he	Does he eat here every day?
she	Does she eat here every day?
people	Do people eat here every day?

3. Number agreement in the complement:

	They are friends.
he	He's a friend.
	I see this book.
books	I see these books.
pencil	I see this pencil.
pencils	I see these pencils.
this	I see this pencil.
book	I see this book.
books	I see these books.
those	I see those books.
that	I see that book.
pencil	I see that pencil.
pencils	I see those pencils.

4. Replacement of several parts of the sentence:

	He gave the boys some fod.
them	He gave them some food.
sent	He sent them some food.
to them	He sent some food to tha.
to us	He sent some food to us.
passed	He passed some food to u.
us	He passed us some food.

This drill makes heavy demands on the alertness of the student, and helps him to order sentences accordin to their relationships. It is a drill for adults, tobe used sparingly, as it can easily become mechanical and meaningless language manipulation. Young children shouldnot be asked to do this kind of drilling. And adults should not be expected to stop there. They need to go on to communication.

B. Transformation drills

1. Any drill involving change in the work order of a sentece is considered a transformation drill.

2. Transformation drills vary in length and complexity.

a. single constructions causing change

(me ... to me)	He gave me a book.
to me	He gave a book to me.
(always; never)	I'm always late.
never	I'm never late.
work	I never work late.
he	He never works late.
is	He's never late.

b. total sentence changes

statement to question:	He goes there: Does he go there?
question to statement:	Did he see them?: Yes, he saw them.
question to command:	Did you tell him?: Tell him.
included question:	What did he do? Do you know?
	Do you know what he did?

c. Time substitution in three basic kinds of sentences: statement, question, negative statement.

We go to school every day.
Do you eat lunch at home?
Yes, we don't have lunch at school.

There are two ways to proceed:

(1 - one sentence at a time)

now	We're going to school now.
yesterday	We went to school yesterday.
tomorrow	We're going to go to school tomorrow.
since June	We've gone to school since last June.
now	Are you eating lunch at home now?
yesterday	Did you eat lunch at home yesterday?
tomorrow	Are you going to eat lunch at home tomorrow?
since June	Have you eaten lunch at home since June?
now	We aren't having lunch at school.
yesterday	We didn't have lunch at school yesterday.
tomorrow	We aren't going to have lunch at school tomorrow.
since June	We haven't had lunch at school since June.

(2 - the three sentences together)

now	We're going to school now.
	Are you eating lunch at home now?
	Yes. We aren't eating at school.

(and so on through the time signals)

The advantage of this drill is that it includes the auxiliaries needed for questions and negatives, and gives a more complete review of tense changes than a series of statements would do.

(3 - total sentence changes)

Men go to work; women stay home.
A man goes to work; a woman stays home.
This child is happier than that one.
These children are happier than those.

Comment: Strictly speaking, exercise three is subtitution rather than transformation. However, the whole sentence undergoes a change in this. The title of the exercise isn't

important. What is important, is that a total sentence has many small relationships that must change when the problem of singular-plural is introduced. The ability to handle this kind of transformation will ensure control of many of the more troublesome problems of number.

C. Completion drills

1. Any drill requiring conditioned production of a part of a sentence in order to make it complete.

2. The addition of elements tied to the rest of the sentence by requirements of number, time, word order make up these drills:

a. simple addition

I want to go.

you — I want you to go.

Do you want to tell me?

what — What do you want to tell me?
why — Why do you want to tell me?

b. lexical choice

(because, although) — I went to the dance .... I had a fever. / I had a new dress.

c. verb-subject correlations

John smiles, and I .... (do, too)
John smiles, and Mary .... (does, too)
John swims, but Mary .... (doesn't)
John doesn't dive, and Mary .... (doesn't either)

Comment: This exercise has infinite possibilities. By changing the tenses and the subject the drill can continue through the verb and pronoun systems. The (too...either) contrast is a particular problem, as is the use of substitute verbs (do, does, did).

He's a student .... (isn't he?)
This is yours .... (isn't it?)
They used to live here .... (didn't they?)
She doesn't have to do that .... (does she?)

Comment: The "tag question" has a number of teaching points:

a. The verb of the tag must be the same tense and number as the verb in the statement.

he is .... isn't he?
he goes .... doesn't he?

b. The subject of the tag must always be a personal pronoun.

That's a new dress, isn't it.

c. In the most common pattern, if the statement is affirmative, the tag is negative; if the statement is negative, the tag is affirmative.

d. The response is tied to the statement...not to the tag. (Particularly confusing for speakers of several Oriental languages)

He's here, isn't he...	Yes, he is.
He didn't go, did he...	No, he didn't.

e. If the tag ends in a rising contour, it is probably a genuine question implying uncertainty on the part of the questioner.

If it ends in a rising-falling intonation contour, the speaker probably expects agreement and is just politely including the listener in his comments.

D. Conditioned Response

1. Any drill calling for answers that are controlled by the possibilities of the question can be considered a conditioned response drill.

2. They range from relatively restricted to relatively free.

a. Answers to questions based on context:

"yes"/"no"	Did the rabbit go out? Yes, he did. Did he smell a carrot or eat one?
"or"	He smelled it.
"where"	Where did he go? Along the path.

b. Cued responses:

Tell us what the rabbit did first.	He sniffed the air.
Ask Fely what the rabbit did.	What did the rabbit do, Fely? He sniffed the air.

c. Controlled "conversation" to elicit various structures:

1. modal auxiliaries:

What can a cat do that a dog can't do?
It can climb a tree.

Which would you rather do: eat or sleep?
I'd rather sleep.

Should men be polite to women?
Should women be polite to men?

2. the -s form of the present:

I know a man who does some things well.
He sings.
He plays golf.

But he doesn't do everything well:
He sings, but he doesn't dance well.
He plays golf, but he doesn't play tennis.

continue with: He drives a car, but...
He raises pigeons, but...

What else does he do?

What are the things he doesn't do?

(This exercise illustrates the principle of gradual release of control of the material until the student is producing his own sentences modeled on the earlier ones.)

3. To encourage freer production: Ask Mr. X what he did yesterday.
What did you do, Mr. X?
Tell Miss Y what you saw.

defining sentences: He teaches...what is he?
He's a teacher.

He's a teacher...what does he do?
He teaches.

What is a shoe store?
A shoe store is one that sells shoes.

A stores that sells shoes is a...
shoe store.

(speak slowly)
I like girls who...speak slowly.

I like a girl who...speaks slowly.

These drills were suggested by Harold King in English Language Teaching, Vol.XIV, No. 1, p. 17. He calls them Substitution..Concordance drill:

The letter was there, but nobody noticed it.
I was there, but nobody noticed me.

or

They're doing the same thing they did yesterday.
They're buying the same thing, they bought.

and

Why doesn't Mr. White play something for us?
He forgot to bring his music with him.

Why don't the children play something for us?
They forgot to bring their music with them.

CONCLUSION

The drills described on these pages are merely DEVICES to help provide oral/aural practice necessary for acquiring grammatical mastery. They serve to replace the activities of former days in which we recited rules and wrote out a series of unrelated sentences.

Who can benefit from these exercises? Are they all equally good for the language learner of any age at all levels of language learning? No, they are not.

The young child, pre-school or in the early elementary grades does not benefit from the language manipulation demanded by many of these drills. This young learner needs to hear the story or take part in the dialogue suited to his age and interests. He needs to imitate the sentences, play the roles suggested, and apply the sentences to new situations provided by the teacher.

The older learner in the upper grades of elementary school or in junior high school can use some, but not all, of these devices. He too needs the story or dialogue. In addition, he can respond to questions about introductory material and consider generalizations about the grammar under study. Substitution, conversion, completion exercises from explicitly stated models should be possible, and gradually "de-controlled" conversation a desirable possibility.

High school, college, and adult learners generally can do all the foregoing and can include "controlled conversation" activities which allow more freedom of choice. Written assignments following each lesson can further reinforce the oral practice. Composition topics can and should force the use of structures under consideration. Guided composition, suggested vocabulary, sentence clues can also be furnished as aids to the less fluent adult learner.

Our aims and procedures are focused on oral mastery, on acquiring the ability to use the sentences of the new language without having to stop and translate from the first language. We begin to ensure this control by controlling the speech of the learner. We model for him, and he repeats after us. Then step by step, we release our control of him and push him further into using language, accurately, fluently, without conscious effort, in order to communicate with others, an end which is the ultimate purpose of all language teaching worth doing.